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ABSTRACT

Subjects were 138 inmates from the pre-release unit of a Southwestern prison system, randomly divided into three groups of 46 each. Each group viewed a video-taped model delivering a speech. The independent variable had three levels: (1) lecturer attired in a shirt and tie; (2) lecturer attired in a correctional officer's uniform; and (3) model attired in a T-shirt. After each group viewed the tapes, subjects were administered a knowledge test and an evaluation questionnaire. Results revealed significant effects on the knowledge test and on two questionnaire items. Inmates learned the most from a correctional officer model who was dressed in jeans and a T-shirt; they learned second best from a model attired in slacks, shirt and tie; they learned least from a model dressed in a correctional officer's uniform. Results support the following: (1) modeling behavior is an integral part of the characteristics of the model; and (2) modeling behavior is a result of the perceived degree of similarity between the observer and the model. In terms of observational learning theory, correctional agencies should discontinue the use of uniforms. (Author)

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EFFECTS OF MODEL CHARACTERISTICS ON OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING OF INMATES IN A PRE-RELEASE CENTER

Presented at the Ohio Academy of Science

86th Annual Meeting

Columbus, Ohio

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore the affects of attire on learning and evaluation of material by inmates at the Texas Department of Corrections. This study also develops learning theory as it relates to the rehabilitative efforts of the correctional officer. The intent of this research is to discover the affect, if any, of dress of a prison official on inmate learning and evaluation. Does the present Texas Department of Corrections (hereinafter TDC) correctional guards' dress hinder or facilitate learning? That is, of the three alternative modes of dress proposed in this study, which type of clothing, if any, has a differential effect on learning?

Why Do The Study?

In addition to the relationship between modeling contingencies and learning behavior, this study can be viewed as an empirical test of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.

> Historically, corrections personnel resembled military and law enforcement officers. Correctional staff members were used almost entirely in paramilitary capacities, even in the state "school" for juveniles and youths ... . Some correctional staff still wear uniforms and have military titles ... . In all too many modern correctional institutions, these policies and practices remain. Great conflict is evident as this militaristic system is confronted today by persons urging adoption of modern organizational concepts. (1973, pp. 463-471)

Further, Standard 14.1 states:

> Correctional agencies should begin immediately to develop personnel policies and practices that will improve the image of corrections and facilitate the fair and effective selection of the best persons for correctional positions.
>
> To improve the image of corrections, agencies should:
>
> 1. Discontinue the use of uniforms. *
> 2. Replace all military titles with names appropriate to the correctional task.
> 3. Discontinue the use of badges and, except where absolutely necessary, the carrying of weapons.
> 4. Abolish such military terms as company, mess hall, inspection and gig list.
> 5. Abandon regimented behavior in all facilities, both for personnel and for inmates ... (p. 471).

The underlying "intent" of these standards emphasizes that corrections, as regimented and military in nature, is counter-productive to rehabilitation. There are no empirical studies in the field of corrections which support or contradict standards relevant to the affects of the uniform.

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* Emphasis provided by this author.

Academia and Corrections

In 1870, the American Prison Association, later to become the American Correctional Association, adopted the following in its Declaration of Principles:

> Specialized training as well as high qualities of head and heart is required to make a good prison or reformatory officer. Then only will the administration of public punishment become scientific, uniform, and successful when it is raised to the dignity of a professional (sic) and men are specially trained for it as they are for other pursuits (American Journal of Corrections, 1958, pp. 8-11).

According to Glaser, (1972), there are two goals of prison -- incapacitation and rehabilitation. (Historically, there have been three rationales for incarceration -- rehabilitation, retribution, and deterrence.)

> Incapacitation is the one goal which institutions are most successful in attaining. Few prisoners escape: most who do are quickly apprehended and while persons confined commit some crimes against each other and against prison employees, they are largely prevented from preying on the outside community. Incapacitation is needed, however, only when rehabilitation is not achieved: when an offender no longer is a marked risk to the community we do not have to be concerned about the security of his custody. It follows that rehabilitation is the most essential and most variable goal of correctional institutions. This variability and centrality of rehabilitation justifies taking some risks of not achieving maximum incapacitation or deterrence if these risks result from measures which increase the prospect of rehabilitation (p. 5).

In other words, incapacitation is one function of the prison and rehabilitation is still another. Prisons generally are organizationally divided into treatment and custodial functions. The custodial function involves the coordinated operating of the prison on a day-to-day

routine directed primarily to the incapacitating goal. Treatment personnel, which includes school teachers, psychologists, and social workers, deal with the rehabilitation goal of the prison. Norval Morris and James Jacob wrote Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 510 entitled "Proposals for Prison Reform." They differentiated between two distinct concepts: "humanitarian reform" and the "rehabilitative ideal." "Humanitarian reform calls for minimum civilized standards of living conditions and of physical safety within the prison. The rehabilitative ideal refers to the kind of treatment that will bring about the successful reintegration of prisoners into society." This investigation examines the influence of the correctional officer's uniform in relationship to learning by inmates. Learning is viewed as a variable that might help in the reintegration process.

Do semi-military uniforms worn by correctional officers have an influence on interaction via learning and evaluation? Do clothes have an impact on viewers which causes them to pay less attention to the model and to evaluate his presentation negatively? The basic question being asked is: does the clothing style of the model have an affect on attention and retention of content and does evaluation of the message change as a function of attire? Do clothes enhance positive or negative valence which leads to the likelihood of the learner to attend to and to learn according to the principles of observational learning theory? If attire is indeed a factor that can arouse positive or negative feelings, in and of itself, and if modeling is desired in the rehabilitation efforts of the prison worker, then prison officials need to know the affects of attire on inmates in relationship to rehabilitation and learning. Just as positive affective sources (models who are viewed positively) should increase the likelihood for modeling to occur, so negative affective valence sources should decrease

the probability of imitation.

The meaning of clothing is deeply and inextricably interwoven with our values and judgments. As Polonius noted in Hamlet, "The apparel oft proclaims the man" (Shakespeare, ed. H.H. Furness, 1963). When we meet someone, we form an immediate impression, a composite picture in our mind, of the other person's character" (Shaw, 1973).

What are the conditions under which change can be affected? How does or can, the correctional experience fit into this process of change? What types of models in the correctional experience promote the best learning for people who are incarcerated?

With respect to the first question, inmates from the lower strata of society are over-represented in the prison population (The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, 1967). This is not to say that poverty or crowding per se causes crime. Growing up or living in the lower strata of our society may have at least two general kinds of consequences. The first is learning what life is like. Merton (1957) suggests that lower-class occupants cannot help but learn that life is a series of chronic frustrations with respect to those very values that society seems to hold dear and which its mass media and in its educational system stresses-success, status, wealth, and prestige. These values, of which the member of the lower stratum is aware, are unlikely to be achieved by him, a fact of which he also becomes aware. The withdrawal or the loss of these rewards -- rewards he has been socialized to seek and which are unattainable--cannot be a deterrent for him. The loss of status, the loss of success, and the loss of social approval no longer serve as deterrent to deviant behavior as they do for many other people. In short, the delinquent learns that he has no real stake in the larger society and hence really has nothing to lose

by violating the norms. The essential idea is that chronic frustration of aspirations toward society's values (the situation of the lower-class member) leads to alienation from society, hostility, and resentment towards representatives of the general society, and repudiation of the norms of the larger society.

The second major consequence of lower-class membership is the learning of certain personal attitudes, subjective orientations, or personality attributes which indirectly may facilitate or generate antisocial behavior (Miller, 1958 ; Cohen, 1955). For example, maintaining a reputation (rep) may result in murder by a person who has learned that a reputation as a "man" is important.

From the above discussion, the role of the correctional officer becomes somewhat clearer. Of all the personnel in the institution, the correctional officer spends the most amount of time with the inmates. The teaching by the correctional officer is both direct and indirect, and the success of each of these approaches is entirely dependent upon the closeness and meaningfulness of the officer-inmate interaction and relationship (Lyle, 1973). For example, a punishing model may not become influential in attitudinal change for the inmate.

Direct teaching means the discussions with the inmate about society, about the relation between behavior and its consequences, about the importance of planning one's future, about the relationship between skills and opportunities--the whole gamut of social experience which had either never been learned or had been learned contrary to existing norms.

Indirect teaching refers to the teaching that goes on when one person is a model for another person. The correctional officer as model is not so much a perfect or ideal model as he is a human being subject to human frailty.

Police Literature

Since very few studies in the field of corrections deal with the effects of uniforms, the few studies and reports in the police component of the criminal justice system will be reviewed. It should be remembered that the police, the courts and corrections comprise the criminal justice system. The military type uniform worn by police and by correctional officers may be seen as similar; and the effects of the police uniform may be assumed to generalize to the correctional uniform.

Shaw's article "The Role of Clothing in the Criminal Justice System" in the Journal of Police Science and Administration states:

> ...clothing determines the behavior of the wearer to a large extent. The police uniform, the correction officer's uniform and the prisoner's garb, in themselves, might have a bearing on their wearer's actions. The police uniform generates a maritial (sic) conception of order and is invested with heavy moral significance. Prisoner's garb creates in the wearer an uncomfortable feeling because of its association with condemnation by society for breaking its rules. One theorist associates the prison uniform with psychological castration and a reminder that there is no love in the world for the prisoner. Prison stripes are also described as representative of prison bars, and by wearing the stripes, the prisoner is always carrying the prison with him. The correction officer's strength is in his uniform. While it creates stress in the operating of the prison, it also created staff solidarity. The author's view is that clothing in the criminal justice system seems both to express, and to be the cause of, attitudes, actions, and reactions (December, 1973, pp. 414-429).

Walsh (Radalet, 1973, p. 128) looked into the question of meaning of the uniform to the policeman. Walsh asked the question of the officers he interviewed: "Some have suggested that police work could improve its image if it were to encourage officers to wear suits, not uniforms, while on duty. Do you agree?" Almost ninety per cent of the respondents disagreed. Among these, the importance of the uniform as a "symbol" of the wearer's identity or mark of distinction increased as professional striving increased; the "professionals" were stronger in their

disagreement with the question than the "jobbers." The latter saw the uniform as important, but mainly as a deterrent to those who might break the law.

Attacking the idea that "symbols" may deter crime -- the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment: A Technical Report (1975) revealed in the victimization surveys, the experimental conditions (the experimental condition removed patrol cars from some areas of the city and saturated patrol cars in the other areas of the city) had no significant effect on residence and non-residence burglaries, auto thefts, larcenies involving auto accessories, robberies, or vandalism -- crimes traditionally considered to be deterrable through preventive patrol. In other words, the symbol of authority via the police patrol car did not have an effect on crime deterrence; or authority symbols may not deter crime.

Much of the literature concerning the police deals with the police as symbolic agents. Smith states:

> Relatively few citizens can recall ever having seen a judge: fewer still, a prosecutor, coroner, sheriff, probation officer or prison warden. The patrolman is thoroughly familiar to all. His uniform picks him out from the crowd so distinctly that he becomes the living symbol of the law -- not always of its majesty, but certainly of its power. Whether the police like it or not, they are forever marked men (1972, p. 22).

Hans H. Toch states:

> A police officer is partly a symbol, and police work consists to some extent in the creation of illusions based on symbolic attributes ... . The police uniform is viewed as a symbolic license to judge and to punish. It does so, not only by representing the right to arrest, but also by connoting the punishing role in general (1965, pp. 22-25).

The National Advisory Commission of Criminal Justice Standards and Goals -- Police states:

> Advocates of the civilian style hold that the traditional uniform is too militaristic in appearance, and that softening the image by clothing policemen in civilian-style attire will make officers seem more approachable and "human" to the public ... . Those opposed to the civilian style argue that the conventional police uniform, because it has long been associated with authority, commands the respect which is necessary for effective law enforcement ... the data available from experiments with the blazer uniforms are so limited -- with regard to both the number of agencies using it and the duration of such use -- that a valid evaluation of its total impact on agencies using it has not been made (1973, p. 366).

The Menlo Police Department of Menlo Park, California, switched the entire police department to a green blazer uniform in August of 1969. Victor I. Cizanckas, the chief, studied the results of the uniform change (Cizanckas, 1970). It was hypothesized ex-post facto that this uniform change was connected with a subsequent decrease in assaults on officers and an increase in traffic citations. These hypotheses are contaminated by the fact that along with changes in uniforms came major departmental reorganization changes. For example, the detective branch was dissolved and every patrolman assumed the responsibility of detectives. Also, ranks and traditional titles were done away with. Cizanckas and Pruviance (1973) state further:

> One factor has been increasingly clear in recent times: the law enforcement officer and the man-on-the-street often have strong negative feelings about one another ... . As the enforcer of the law, the policeman has become, for many persons living in ghettos and more recently in the college system, a living symbol of all the inequities in the social system (p. 42).

Muchmore (1975) asked the question, "Does the introduction of an authority symbol, in this case, the police uniform, have an effect on the wearer's ability to function in a group even when the symbol is

irrelevant to the purposes of the group?" The results of his experiment, using 75 students from William Rainey Harper College, indicated that the introduction of a uniformed policeman into a situation in which the uniform is an irrelevant authority symbol had a negative effect on the group process. The experimenters reasoned that if people have an initial negative (or positive) reaction to the uniformed policeman, that reaction would have an effect on the subsequent activity of the group. Subjects were asked to rank five photographs of five individuals in the order in which they would consciously choose those individuals to fill out a discussion group charged with considering "the role of public participation in school" (p. 70).

In the other situation subjects were asked to rank the same group of five individuals in the order in which they would consciously choose them to fill out a discussion group charged with considering "the problem of juvenile delinquency in the community" (p. 70). The person attired in a policeman's uniform was chosen among the last for condition number one and the same photograph was chosen among the first for situation number two. The experimenters suggest that one should carefully consider the potential effect of visible symbols of authority before introducing them into irrelevant situations.

David Geary, chief of the Ventura, California, police department, in "Police Fad or Future" (1969) states: "The significance of this move to a new type of police uniform should be examined. It shows police administrators have a growing awareness of some of the truths businessmen have known for decades. 'Anything that stands between you and your customer must be removed if you are to do an effective job of selling your product.' Policemen adhering to this school of thought claim militar

uniforms, official insignia, and conspicuous display of weapons overwhelm citizens with police authority, and are a threat to the image of friendly understanding and service they desire."

Snibbe (1968) asks, "If the uniform is really a symbol and the symbol represents negative attitudes, why not eliminate its very form and replace it with a reference which is positive?" He states further, "At best this tactic would create a reversal in attitudes toward the police, and at worst it would at least neutralize some of the existing automatic reaction" (p. 66).

Banton (1964) states: "One of the functions of the uniform is to emphasize the role someone is playing and to minimize individual differences among the people who have to play it. It makes the police who have to play this role appear interchangeable" (p. 121).

Wiley (1972), in a nationwide survey, revealed that the police administrators prefer a uniform which allows the police officer to project both a police image and a civilian image since both are desirable at certain times and under certain circumstances.

Observational Learning Theory

Observational learning, or imitative learning, is said to occur when an organism engages in behavior after observation of others' behavior. This learning differs from operant conditioning in that the presence of an actual or symbolic model is crucial to learning. If observers subsequently learn the task faster than subjects who have not observed a model, observational learning is said to have occurred. Two of the conceptions of imitation current in modern learning theory follow. Akers states:

> ... imitation is thought of as a special learning process involving only sensory contiguity with an example or model. The individual is not himself rewarded for certain actions immediately, but he observes a model's behavior being rewarded

> and as a result of this vicarious reinforcement emulates the actions of the other person. The imitation may then itself be rewarded. Second, imitation is seen as merely another case of direct operant conditioning. In this conception imitating is itself a learned ability which has been acquired through direct reinforcement. Also, a seemingly spontaneous behavioral episode following observation of another person's behavior is merely the chaining together at a given time of a series of previously disconnected acts which are already part of the imitator's behavior repertoire (op. cit., p. 52).
>
> Bandura and Walters (1963) provided a new perspective to the process of learning by specifically delineating the degree to which new responses may be acquired as a function of observation of models, often in the absence of any immediate matching response on the part of the learner, and without the overt application of reinforcement. This added a new and important dimension to psychology.
>
> The theory, as specified by Bandura ... conceptualized modeling as requiring four basic processes: attention, retention, motoric capability, and motivation (Symonds, 1974, pp. 1-2).

The basic component functions that markedly influence the nature and degree of observational learning as indicated by Bandura are:

1) Attentional Processes -- An observer will fail to duplicate behavior if he does not pay attention, ... attending to the stimulus or cuing is necessary.

2) Retention Process -- After there has been sensory registration, retention of the modeled event is important.

3) Motor Reproduction Process -- In order for the observational stimulus to be imitated the observer must be able to perform overtly the behavior.

4) Motivational Process -- A person may acquire and retain modeled events and possess the capabilities to perform the behavior, but the learning may not be overtly expressed if there are negative sanctions. The person must want to perform the behavior.

> If Bandura's theoretical position that the attentional process of imitation learning is enhanced by positive affect is valid, it should follow that the theoretical and empirical work coming from the field of interpersonal attraction should find a place within the overall theory of imitation. We have developed the following syllogism: We imitate people we like, we like people

> who are similar to us, therefore, we imitate people who are similar to us (op. cit., p. 48).

The concept of similarity being a factor in promoting observational learning becomes interesting when the reader recalls that the lower strata of our society is over-represented in our prison systems and that reactions to police uniforms are often negative.

One might reason that uniformed people such as policemen or correctional officers are perceived as dissimilar to lower strata inhabitants. The uniform represents authority, poor people perceive themselves as having little authority, therefore, the uniform represents differences. The lower strata inhabitants are punished by being arrested and sent to prison at a higher rate than middle or upper class inhabitants. For this reason, similarity and dissimilarity in modeling are viewed as important.

Although perceived similarity to the model is not a characteristic of the model, it may be an important variable in determining if the model will be attended to by the viewer.

Hypotheses

The importance of similarity in modeling is not crucial to this study, but should be understood in the context of potential positive affect of modeling. By having a model appear as a member of the "counter-culture", another "outsider's" group (Spiegel & Spiegel, 1973) or as members of the lower strata of society, inmates theoretically should view the model as similar to themselves. Symbolic attributes of similarity might be best seen in a model wearing a T-shirt (not an undershirt). A person attired in a tie may symbolize a middle class member who is theoretically more similar to inmates in a civilian-semi-military analysis: a person attired in a correctional officer's uniform

may symbolize institutional police, seen as the most dissimilar of the three types of attire.

The main theoretical position of this study, however, attributes attention and retention of learning as espoused by Bandura as paramount to imitation learning. Similarities to the model are viewed as secondary in theoretical importance.

In view of the assumption that military-type uniforms tend to have an alienative effect and that they tend to provoke negative emotional feelings, especially for the lower strata of society, this study proposes to measure empirically some of the effects of the military-type uniform worn by the correctional officer at the Texas Department of Corrections in relationship to learning.

Originally, it was hypothesized that there would be a difference in learning and evaluation among the groups as a function of attire. But since the literature suggests that the semi-military uniform is so emotionally laden, the major hypothesis will be directional.

Hypothesis I: Inmates will learn more from a model and will evaluate that model more positively if he is attired in a T-shirt or a tie and shirt than if he is attired in a correctional officer's uniform.

METHOD

One hundred and thirty-eight subjects participated in the experiment. The one hundred and thirty-eight subjects were randomly divided into three groups of forty-six subjects. These subjects comprised a group of inmates enrolled in the pre-release program at the Jester Unit of the Texas Department of Corrections. Incarceration in the TDC ends at the pre-release unit for most inmates who are paroled or discharged. Completion of the program at the Jester Unit results in the release of the offender

from incarceration. According to the Assistant Superintendent at the Jester Unit and the Director of Research for the Texas Department of Corrections, each group enrolled in the program at the pre-release unit is representative of the TDC population except for some categories of inmates. Inmates held on detainer, those so hostile that they are believed likely to disrupt the pre-release program, and those inmates who are seen as needing protection from other inmates are excluded from the program. They are released without participating in the pre-release program. Goree, the women's unit, has its own pre-release program.

Each group viewed a video taped model delivering a speech entitled "Emotional Maturity." The speech was one of the required lectures the pre-release inmates hear before being discharged from the prison system. The video tapes were virtually identical, the same model, the same gestures, et. cetera, with the exception of the independent variable. The independent variable had three levels. In one tape, the lecturer was attired in a shirt and tie, in another tape the lecturer was attired in a T-shirt. The model was filmed from the waist up in order to control many interviewing variables (e.g. hand gestures and body posture). In all video tapes the lecturer was introduced as a correctional officer from the Training Academy of the prison system.

After each group viewed the tapes, the subjects were administered a knowledge test and an evaluation questionnaire. Since many inmates are illiterate, the knowledge test was shown on the video tape and read aloud as well as being written on the examination sheet. There were twenty multiple choice knowledge test questions and ten questionnaire items.

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

One-way analysis of variance tests* were calculated across the means of the three groups for the data on the demographic items collected (age, educational level, I.Q., and months in TDC) and chi-square tests were calculated on the demographic variables of race and marital status (Table 1). Thus, the groups were deemed comparable in terms of race, marital status, age, I.Q., educational level, and months in TDC. The variables of age, education level, I.Q., and months in TDC in each group were shown to have a probability level of .97, .58, .75 and .64 respectively on analysis of variance. The variables of race and marital status had a probability level of .80 and .70 respectively. These analyses mean that the groups were comparable on each of the variables tested i.e., there were no statistically significant differences between the groups on these variables.

There were two major concerns in the analysis under consideration dealing with the inmates. The first of these dealt with learning content from a video-taped lecturer. The other concern investigated the results of the evaluation questionnaire.

One way analysis of variance was calculated for the knowledge test and each of the ten items on the evaluation questionnaire. The data indicated a significant difference between groups on the knowledge test ($P < .01$) (Table 2) and on two of the items on the evaluation questionnaire. "Did the speaker give the impression of understanding the problems which confront prison life?" ($P < .03$) and "Do you believe the speaker is knowledgeable about prison work?" ($P < .06$) (Tables 4 and 6).

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* All analysis of variance computations were calculated by computer programs adapted from Veldman, 1967.

Newman-Keuls analysis were calculated across the means of the significant effect on the knowledge test. The group that viewed the model attired in a T-shirt was significantly different from the group that viewed the model in a uniform ($P < .01$) on the knowledge test. The subjects who viewed the model wearing a tie and shirt differed from those who viewed the uniformed model ($P < .05$) on the knowledge test. There was no statistical significance between the T-shirt group and the tie and shirt group on the knowledge test. (Table 3) Thus, inmates learned significantly more when the model wore either a tie and shirt or a T-shirt than when the model wore a correctional officer's uniform.

Discussion

The subjects who saw the tie and shirt presentation and the T-shirt presentation learned significantly more and evaluated the presentation more positively than the group who saw the uniform presentation. Thus, the data supported the hypothesis. However, of the ten evaluation items, only two scores were significant.

This study partially supports the interpersonal attraction principles and provides a contribution to observational learning theory in general. Clothes appear to make a difference in the attentional component of observational learning theory. People pay attention and learn more from models as a function of the attire of the model. This investigation partially upheld the concept of similarity in modeling. Those groups that learned the most also evaluated the speaker the most positively on two evaluation questions.

It is assumed that people learn more because they pay more attention as a function of the model's characteristics. Also, this study offers limited support for interpersonal attraction theory since subjects learned more from models whom they evaluated more positively on two evaluation items. Thus, Symond's syllogism: we imitate people we like, we like people who we view as similar to us, therefore, we imitate people who are similar to us, has limited support. The study indicates that those people who work in prison, who have a rehabilitative function (as opposed to a custodial function) are likely to be significantly more affective as models for learning for inmates if they are attired in a T-shirt or tie and shirt than if they are attired in a uniform.

In addition to the remarks concerning learning theory, the results of this investigation support the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. In terms of observational learning theory, correctional agencies should, as recommended by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals discontinue the use of uniforms. A future study that would address itself to the same standard that correctional agencies should discontinue the use of uniforms would investigate the affects, if any, of the uniform on those who wear it. Zimbardo (1975) and Goffman (1963) both emphasize the negative psychological effects of prison. Does wearing a uniform have an affect on the wearer that might contribute to this negative psychological sense of well being? Does the uniform contribute significantly to the wearer's psychological sense of well being?

Another study that would be useful to correctional agencies would investigate the affects of the uniform in terms of compliance to orders. Does the uniform help in having orders obeyed or does the symbol of authority via the uniform deter deviation from the rules?

Practical Recommendations for Change as a Result of the Study

As a behavioral scientist, this investigator recommends that this study be duplicated before any changes in the Texas Department of Corrections be implemented. If further research substantiates the same hypotheses, then practical changes would be in order. Because this study was interested in observational learning, not compliance to orders, the practical implementation would be to attire only those people who basically serve a "treatment" function in either a T-shirt or a shirt and tie. For example, the most obvious change would be to attire those correctional officers at the Diagnostic Unit who interview the inmates as they come into the Texas Department of Corrections in T-shirts or ties and shirts. Presently, many of the correctional officers who do interviewing are attired in uniforms.

TABLE 1

CHECK ON THE RANDOMIZATION ACROSS MEANS AND THE PROBABILITY LEVEL FOR ALL DEMOGRAPHIC DATA COLLECTED ON INMATES USING ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	Uniform	Tie & Shirt	T-Shirt	Probability Level
Age in years	30.06	29.69	29.93	.93
Educational Level	8.13	7.78	7.41	.58
I.Q.	88.07	90.94	92.42	.75
Months in TDC	25.36	29.71	31.04	.64

RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE ON THE DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

	df	Probability Level
Race *	4	.80
Marital Status **	6	.70

* White, Black, Mexican

** Single, Married, Divorced, other

TABLE 2

ONE-WAY ANOVA TABLE FOR KNOWLEDGE TEST ON INMATES

Source	df	ss	ms	f	Probability Level
Between	2	139.86	69.93	5.419	<.01
Within	135	1741.50	12.90		
Total	137	1881.36	13.73		

TABLE 3

MEANS AND THE RESULTS OF THE NEWMAN-KEULS TEST ON THE SET OF MEANS OBTAINED BY THE ANOVA FOR KNOWLEDGE TEST

	Uniform	Tie and Shirt	T-Shirt
Means	8.9	10.6	11.3

	Critical	Observed
T-Shirt versus uniform	4.12	*4.52
T-Shirt versus tie & shirt	2.77	1.27
Tie & shirt versus uniform	2.77	**3.24

* Significant P<.01
** Significant P<.05

TABLE 4

ONE-WAY ANOVA TABLE FOR EVALUATION ITEM #6 BY INMATES

"Did the speaker give the impression of understanding the problems which confront prison life?"

Source	df	Sums of Squares	Means Square	F	Probability Level
Between	2	39.18	19.59	3.63	<.03
Within	135	726.30	5.38		
Totals	137	765.48	5.59		

TABLE 5

MEANS AND THE RESULTS OF THE NEWMAN-KEULS TEST
ON THE SET OF MEANS OBTAINED BY
ANOVA FOR QUESTION #6

	Uniform	Tie and Shirt	T-Shirt
MEANS	3.4	4.7	4.1

	Critical	Observed
Tie and shirt versus uniform	3.31	*3.81
Tie and shirt versus T-shirt	2.77	1.78
T-shirt versus uniform	2.77	2.03

* Significant $P < .05$

TABLE 6

ONE-WAY ANOVA TABLE FOR EVALUATION
ITEM #7 BY INMATES

"Did you believe the speaker is knowledgeable about prison work?"

Source	df	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	Probability Level
Between	2	31.60	15.80	2.96	<.05
Within	135	719.55	5.33		
Total	137	751.15	5.48		

TABLE 7

MEANS AND THE RESULTS OF THE NEWMAN-KEULS TEST
ON THE SET OF MEANS OBTAINED BY ANOVA
FOR QUESTION #7

	Uniform	Tie and Shirt	T-Shirt
MEANS	3.5	4.6	4.5

	Critical	Observed
Tie and shirt versus uniform	4.12	3.12
Tie and shirt versus T-shirt	2.77	3.20
T-shirt versus uniform	2,77	*2.81

* Significant $P < .05$

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